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13. ABSTRACT (Maximum 200 Words) Retinoic acid (RA) resistance is a major hurdle of retinoid-differentiation therapy. One form of RA-resistance in breast cancer can be traced to loss of expression of the tumor suppressor RAR β , due to epigenetic changes including DNA methylation and histone deacetylation in one of the RAR β promoters. Epigenetic changes are reversible. By using histone deacetylase inhibitors (HDACI), including phenyl butyrate (PB) and Trichostatin A (TSA), we were able to revert epigenetic changes at RAR β , restore RA sensitivity and induce endogenous RAR β expression in RA-resistant breast cancer cells both <i>in vivo</i> and <i>in vitro</i> (Sirchia et al., Cancer Research, 62, 2455-2461, 2002). Our next goal is to evaluate whether we can improve reactivation of endogenous RAR β . In the course of our preliminary studies we realized that the RA-resistant phenotype is associated with RAR β promoter not only with a) heterogeneous DNA methylation/histone hypocetylation patterns but also b) different types and degree of histone modifications, including methylation at lysine 4 and 9 on Histone 3, acetylation at histone 3 and histone 4, and phosphorylation at serine 3 on Histone 3. It remains to be established whether these modifications can influence the efficiency of endogenous reactivation of RAR β .				
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Introduction

Retinoids and breast cancer: the hurdle of retinoid resistance

Retinoids, the natural and synthetic Vitamin A analogs, are powerful drugs for cancer differentiation therapy and prevention. Among natural retinoids, all-trans retinoic acid (RA), 9- cis RA and 13- cisRA, have been shown to be potent agents regulating normal growth and differentiation of epithelial cells both in vitro and in vivo. Search for novel apoptosis- inducing retinoids has led to the development of synthetic retinoids such as N-(4-hydroxyphenyl retinamide) (4HPR) used in cancer treatment (Gudas et al., 1994; Costa et al., 1994). The effects of retinoids are mostly mediated by a special family of ligand-dependent transcription factors, called retinoic acid receptors (RARs) and retinoid X receptors (RXRs) (see for review Chambon, 1996).

Retinoids, recognized to be clinically valuable for their efficacy in differentiation therapy of acute promyelocytic leukemia and oral preneoplasia (see for review Minucci and Pelicci 1999), have received a lot of attention also for breast cancer therapy. The promise of retinoids for breast cancer prevention and treatment was first demonstrated by animal data showing that administration of natural RA and synthetic retinoids can inhibit the initiation and promotion of mammary tumors induced by carcinogens (Costa, 1994; Moon and Mehta, 1990). Moreover, RA and other retinoids can inhibit the growth of human breast cancer cells in vitro (Gudas et al., 1994). However, clinical trials have indicated the existence of a major hurdle of retinoid differentiation therapy in breast cancer, the retinoid resistance of a subset of tumors (Smith et al., 1992; Lippman et al., 1997). This fact was recently confirmed by a clinical trial Phase 1 study using RA on 50 women with operable breast cancer (Toma et al., 2000). RA treatment determined biological effects only in 1 out of 4 tumors, indicating that RA resistant tumors are different from RA sensitive tumors in mediating RA action.

RA- resistance in breast cancer and inactivity of the nuclear receptor RAR beta

Analysis of RARs and RXRs receptors in breast cancer cell lines and primary tumors has pointed to a very consistent correlation between retinoid resistance and a reduced expression of one of the receptor, RAR beta. There are two types of RAR beta negative breast cancer cells (Liu et al., 1996), a subset where RAR beta expression can be reactivated by RA, while another subset where RAR beta cannot be reinduced. The reinduction of RAR beta results in growth inhibition and apoptosis (Li et al., 1995; Seewaldt et al., 1995, 1997; Liu et al., 1996). Notably, loss of RAR beta expression was observed not only in breast cancer cell lines but also in primary tumors (Xu et al., 1997; Sirchia et al., 2000; Widschwendtner et al., 2000) and affects the growth properties of cells (Liu et al., 1996; Faria et al., 1999).

The RAR beta promoter and its regulatory elements

Loss of heterozygosity at chromosome region 3p24, where RAR beta is located has been documented in breast cancer. However, homozygous loss of RAR beta does not seem to be the major cause for the lack of RAR beta expression (Virmani A, Dallas, and personal communication). Recently, we and others showed that DNA methylation of the RAR beta P2 promoter is a factor of RAR beta silencing and RA resistance (Sirchia et al., 2000; Bovenzi et al., 1999; Widschwendtner et al., 2000). Interestingly, we found methylation at P2 also in primary breast tumors. RAR beta P2 under the regulation of several nuclear receptors (Lin et al., 2000) contains the RA- response element (beta-RARE) and controls

the expression of beta-2 and 4 transcripts (Swisshelm et al., 1994; Seewaldt et al., 1997).

Combination of RA and histone deacetylase (HDAC) inhibitors can overcome the constraint of DNA methylation at RAR beta

The relationship between epigenetic RAR beta silencing and RA-resistance suggests a strategy to overcome RAR beta silencing caused by DNA methylation and the massive repression mediated by the MeCP2 corepressor multiprotein complex with histone deacetylase (HDAC) activity (Nan et al., 1998; Razin 1998) based on the use of HDAC inhibitors. . So far, the only other suggested strategy to obtain RAR beta reinduction is to exploit alternative retinoid pathways in RA resistant cell lines (Wu et al., 1997). An analysis of how silencing of RAR beta P2 may occur is the basis to devise a strategy to reverse this silencing. It is noteworthy to recall that the RAR beta promoter is regulated, *even in its unmethylated form*, by the balance of HDAC/HAT activity tethered by the RARs heterodimers in the absence/presence of RA. Second, according to the model that gene inactivity may attract DNA methylation (Ng and Bird, 1999) the repressive chromatin state in the absence of RA (Fig.1A) may predispose the CGs, present in the promoter to be methylated (Fig.1B). This in turn would result in the accumulation of HDAC corepressor complexes tethered by the MeCP2 protein (Fig.1C) and in a severe repressive chromatin state (Fig.1D). This would explain why RA alone is not capable to relieve the massive repression of RA resistant cells. However, our recent *in vitro* data suggest that it is possible to restore RAR beta expression and RA- sensitivity in RA-resistant, P2 methylated cells even in the presence of DNA methylation by removing some HDAC activity with a HDACI and applying at the same time the ligand RA (Sirchia et al., 2000).

Old and new HDACIs

HDAC inhibitors are recognized inducers of differentiation or apoptosis of transformed cells (Marks et al., 2000). The aliphatic and aromatic fatty acids, such sodium phenylbutyrate (PB) and phenylacetate (PA) have been reported to induce tumor cell cytostasis, differentiation and apoptosis in various hematological and solid tumors, including prostate cancer. Phenylacetate/butyrate have been reported to upregulate the expression of RAR α in neuroblastoma cells and thus to enhance retinoid-specific activity (Sidell et al., 1998). One of us has shown that the combination of PB and 13-cis-RA can induce significant biological effects associated with RAR beta re expression in prostate tumors (Pili et al., 2001). Trichostatin (TSA), a specific inhibitor of histone deacetylase potentiates RA-induced differentiation by enhancing RXR/RAR heterodimer binding to RARE (Minucci et al. 1997). Finally that the prototype of a family of hybrid polar compounds, suberoylanilide hydroxamic acid (SAHA) is a novel potent HDACI and suppresses the growth of cancer cells in vitro and in vivo (Butler et al., 2000). These preliminary findings strongly suggest that modulating the acetylation status of the RAR beta P2 chromatin with HDACIs, is likely to be sufficient to restore the activity of the RAR beta P2 promoter and, with it, RA-sensitivity in RA-resistant cells.

During the first six months of this grant from April 1, 2002 to September 30, 2003 we performed most of the experiments outlined in Task1 at the Sidney Kimmel Cancer Center at Johns Hopkins, Baltimore. Since October 1st, 2002 I moved to Roswell Park Cancer Institute, Buffalo, NY. The Award is in the process of being transferred at the time I am writing this report.

Body

Task 1: *To use different HDAC inhibitors in combination with RA to treat RA-resistant breast cancer cell lines with a methylated P2 promoter to assess whether by changing the acetylation status at P2 we can restore RAR β expression*

Results

Briefly, breast cancer cell lines characterized for their methylation status at RAR beta and RA-response the unmethylated cell lines Hs578t, T47D and the methylated lines MCF7, MDA-MB-231, were treated with RA, alone (1-5 μ M) or in combination, with HDAC inhibitors TSA (20-100 ng/ml), PB (2.5-5mM). The acetylation status of the chromatin was studied by a specific technique called chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) (Keshet et al., 1986; Hebbes et al., 1994; Eden et al., 1998) using antibodies directed against the acetylated H3 and H4 histones. Using ChIP we analyzed: 1) the baseline acetylation status of the RAR beta 2 promoter in RA-sensitive and RA-resistant breast cancer cell lines and 2) the chromatin acetylation at RAR beta 2 by different combinations of RA and either TSA or PB.

Abs against both the acetylated H3, H4 histones (Upstate Biotechnology), the phosphorylated H4 as a control with primers designed on RAR beta P2. The acetylation status were analyzed in all the cell lines after treating them with RA alone, or in combination, with either TSA or PB. The acetylation status was also tested after treatment with the demethylating agent 5-Aza-CdR (0.75 μ M). Changes in the DNA methylation status at RAR beta P2 level were analyzed by using methylation specific PCR (MSP) (Herman et al., 1996); RAR beta transcripts were analyzed by RT-PCR and primers described (Sirchia et al., 2000; Virmani et al., 2001).

Detailed Methods and Results : see appended paper by Sirchia et al., Cancer Research, 2002

Key Accomplishments

- Evidence that RAR β 2-negative tumors show variable histone hypoacetylation (from mild to severe) of the chromatin embedding RAR β P2. Severe histone hypoacetylation is associated with DNA methylation of P2
- Evidence that RAR β 2 expression can be restored by the demethylating agent 5-Aza-CdR as well as by combining the histone deacetylase inhibitor trichostatin A (TSA) with pharmacological doses of RA
- Evidence that reacetylation of the chromatin associated with the RAR β P2 is necessary and sufficient to restore expression even from a methylated RAR β P2
- Evidence that endogenous reactivation of a methylation-silenced RAR β 2 is associated with significant tumor growth inhibition in vitro and in xenograft models of breast cancer

Reportable Outcome

One Paper (Appendix 1)

One Abstract (Appendix 2)

Conclusions

The work performed indicates that if modulation of the repressed chromatin status of the promoter of the RAR β tumor suppressor gene in RA-resistant cells can restore RA-sensitivity both *in vitro* and *in vivo*

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Appendices

Papers

Sirchia S, Ren M, Pili R, Sironi S, Somenzi G, Ghidoni R, Toma S, Nicolo' G, Sacchi N *Endogenous reactivation of the RAR β 2 tumor suppressor gene epigenetically silenced in breast cancer* Cancer Res 62, 2455-6, 2002

Abstracts

Silvia Maria Sirchia, MingQiang Ren, Silvia Pozzi, Giulia Somenzi, Riccardo Ghidoni, Silvano Bosari, Roberto Pili, Nicoletta Sacchi *Development of epigenetic RA-resistance in epithelial cancer cells* AACR Proceedings 2003

Abstract to be presented to Toronto and now in Washington DC at the 2003 AACR meeting

Endogenous Reactivation of the *RARβ2* Tumor Suppressor Gene Epigenetically Silenced in Breast Cancer¹

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Abstract

Loss of expression of retinoic acid receptor $\beta 2$ (*RARβ2*), a potent tumor suppressor gene, is commonly observed during breast carcinogenesis. *RARβ2* silencing can be traced to epigenetic chromatin changes affecting the *RARβ2* P2 promoter. Here we show that retinoic acid therapy fails to induce *RARβ2* in primary breast tumors, which carry a methylated *RARβ2* P2 promoter. DNA methylation leads to repressive chromatin deacetylation at *RARβ2* P2. By inducing an appropriate level of histone reacylation at *RARβ2* P2 we could reactivate endogenous *RARβ2* transcription from unmethylated as well as methylated *RARβ2* P2 in breast cancer cell lines and xenograft tumors, and obtain significant growth inhibition both *in vitro* and *in vivo*. This study may have translational implications for breast cancer and other cancers carrying an epigenetically silenced *RARβ2* P2 promoter.

Introduction

Vitamin A and its active metabolites, including RA,⁴ are essential for growth and cell differentiation of epithelial tissue (1). Retinoids exert their effects mainly via nuclear receptors, the RARs and the RXRs, both of which are members of the nuclear receptor superfamily (1). The human *RARβ* gene is expressed as three isoforms: $\beta 1$, $\beta 2$, and $\beta 4$ (2). The biologically active *RARβ2* isoform (1, 2) is under the regulation of the P2 promoter containing a high affinity RA-responsive element RARE (3), which is associated with the transcriptional activation of *RARβ2* by RA in a variety of cells (1).

RARβ2 mRNA expression is greatly reduced in a number of different types of human carcinomas including breast carcinoma (4–7). A growing literature has demonstrated that the anticancer effect of RA is primarily mediated by *RARβ2*, which is a potent tumor suppressor. Expression of *RARβ2* in *RARβ2*-negative cancer cells restored RA-induced GI and caused decreased tumorigenicity (8). Exogenous expression of *RARβ2* results both in RA-dependent and RA-independent apoptosis, and growth arrest even in breast cancer cell lines with scanty amounts of *RARα*, the first effector of *RARβ2* P2 (4, 5, 9). Inhibition of *RARβ2* expression in *RARβ2*-positive cancer cells abol-

ished RA effects (10). Moreover, *RARβ2* knockouts of F9 teratocarcinoma cells could not undergo growth arrest in the presence of RA, indicating that *RARβ2* is required for the growth inhibitory action of RA (11). Finally, expression of *RARβ2* antisense caused an increased frequency of carcinomas in transgenic mice (12). How *RARβ2* exerts its anticancer activity is still largely unknown. Studies in breast cancer cell lines indicate two major *RARβ2* antineoplastic mechanisms, namely RA-induced apoptosis and RA-independent antiactivator protein-1 activity (5, 9). Moreover, *RARβ2* may be involved in the enhancement of tumor immunogenicity (13). Thus far, induction of antitumoral effects in concomitance with endogenous *RARβ2* up-regulation in response to retinoids has been successfully achieved only in patients with oral premalignant lesions (14). In contrast, most epithelial tumors, including breast cancer, showed poor or no response to retinoid treatment (15, 16). In a clinical trial of RA in advanced breast carcinoma patients, *RARβ2* was induced only in one-fourth of *RARβ2*-negative breast tumors (16).

The potential causes for progressive decrease in *RARβ2* mRNA expression during breast carcinogenesis (6, 7) and lack of RA response may be both genetic and epigenetic. However, we and others (17–19) have found that lack of *RARβ2* is more often because of DNA methylation affecting the *RARβ2* P2 promoter of one or more *RARβ* alleles. This made us hypothesize that silencing of *RARβ2* because of epigenetic changes in the *RARβ2* P2 chromatin may hamper *RARβ2* inducibility by RA and be a cause of RA resistance (18). Here we show that this is indeed the case. We were able to analyze pathological specimens of primary breast tumors of a clinical trial of RA (16) and found that those tumors, which did not express *RARβ2* at the end of RA therapy, carry a methylated *RARβ2* P2. Thus, lack of inducibility of *RARβ2* by RA seems to be because of an aberrant repressive chromatin status at *RARβ2* P2.

Apparently, all of the machinery necessary for *RARβ2* reactivation in the presence of RA seems to be intact in breast cancer cells lacking endogenous *RARβ2* expression, because these cells can transcriptionally activate an exogenous *RARβ2* RARE (4). In the presence of RA, a normal *RARβ2* P2 is activated first by *RARα*/RXR heterodimers and cofactors and subsequently by *RARβ2*/RXR heterodimers (20) via dynamic histone acetylation. We reasoned that provided that at least one genomic copy of *RARβ* is intact, and provided that sufficient cofactors and effectors (for instance *RARα*/RXR) are available in a cell, endogenous reactivation of *RARβ2* should be feasible by reversing the repressive constraints affecting the P2 promoter. Here we show that by inducing an appropriate level of *RARβ2* P2 acetylation we could restore *RARβ2* transcription from both unmethylated and methylated *RARβ2* P2 promoters in *RARβ2*-negative carcinoma cells of breast. Endogenous *RARβ2* reactivation resulted in significant GI both *in vitro* and *in vivo*. This study may have translational implications: (a) *RARβ2* P2 methylation seems to be a "predictor" of RA response in breast cancer; and (b) reactivation of *RARβ2* may be a strategy to

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⁴ The abbreviations used are: RA, retinoic acid; RAR, retinoic acid receptor; RXR, retinoid X receptor; RARE, retinoic acid responsive element; PB, phenyl butyrate; 5-Aza-CdR, 5-aza-2'-deoxycytidine; TSA, Trichostatin A; GI, growth inhibition; RT-PCR, reverse transcription-PCR; GAPDH, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase; MSP, methylation-specific PCR; ChIP, chromatin immunoprecipitation; HDAC, histone deacetylase; HAT, histone acetyltransferase; HDACi, histone deacetylase inhibitor.

restore *RARB2* anticancer effects in breast cancer as well as in other epithelial cancers where the *RARB* P2 promoter is epigenetically silenced.

Materials and Methods

Cells and Drug Treatments

Cells. Breast and larynx cancer cell lines were maintained in DMEM with 5% FCS; lung and prostate cancer cell lines were maintained in RPMI 1640 with 5% FCS.

Drug Treatments. Cells seeded at different concentrations and in different vessels according to the objective of the analysis (see details in the different sections) were allowed to attach to the plastic substrate before being treated for periods ranging from 24 h to 6 days with different drug(s) and vehicles. All-*trans*-RA (Sigma, Milan, Italy) dissolved in 95% ethanol was used at final concentrations of 1 and 5 μ M; 5-Aza-CdR (Sigma) dissolved in 0.45% NaCl containing 10 mM sodium phosphate (pH 6.8) was used at a final concentration of 0.8 μ M; PB (Triple Crown America Inc., Peekasie, PA) dissolved in PBS was used at final concentrations of 2.5 and 5 mM; and TSA (Sigma) dissolved in ethanol was used at final concentrations ranging from 33 to 330 nM.

GI was calculated using the trypan blue method according to standard protocols.

Clonogenicity. Five-hundred to 1000 cells/well were seeded in six-well plates, enabled to attach overnight to the plastic substrate before the addition of the appropriate concentrations of the desired drug(s) or vehicles (controls). The medium were replaced with drug-free medium for the desired time. As the colonies became visible (2–3 weeks), cells were fixed with methanol, stained with Giemsa (1:10 in distilled water), and counted.

Apoptotic Index. Apoptosis was evaluated by the *in situ* cell death and horseradish peroxidase detection kit (Roche, Milan, Italy) according to the manufacturer's recommendations. The apoptotic index was calculated as AC/TC, where AC is the number of apoptotic cells and TC the number of total cells counted under a light microscope.

Breast Tumor Samples. Formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded sections from breast tumor from patients enrolled in a clinical trial Phase IB (16) were provided by the Pathology Department, Istituto per lo Studio e la Cura dei Tumori, Genoa (Italy).

DNA and RNA Extraction. Extraction of DNA and RNA from breast cancer cell lines was performed with DNAzol and Trizol, respectively (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). DNA from paraffinized breast cancer samples was extracted from three consecutive sections.

RT-PCR. Real-time RT-PCR was performed on cDNA obtained with Superscript first-strand synthesis kit (Invitrogen) using the ABI PRISM 7700 Sequence Detection System (TaqMan), and the following primers and probes (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) *RAR α* sense, 5'-TGTGGAGTTCGC-CAAGCA-3'; *RAR α* antisense 5'-CGTGTACCGCGTGCAGA-3'; and *RAR α* oligoprobe, 5'-FAM-CTCCTCAAGGCTGCCTGCCGTA-TAMRA-3'; *RARB* sense 5'-CTTCCTGCATGCTCCAGGA-3'; *RARB* antisense 5'-CGCTGAC-CCCATAGTGGTA-3'; *RARB* oligoprobe 5'-FAM-CTTCTCCCTCCGAG-TGTACAAACCT-TAMRA-3'; *GAPDH* sense, 5'-GAAGGTGAAGGTCCGAGTC-3'; *GAPDH* antisense 5'-GAAGATGGTGATGGGATTTC-3'; and *GAPDH* oligoprobe, 5'-FAM-CAAGCTTCCCGTTCTCAGCC-TAMRA-3'.

Quantitation was performed by the comparative threshold cycle *C_t* method. For semiquantitative RT-PCR, 50 ng of Dnase-treated total RNA was amplified with the Superscript One-Step RT-PCR System (Invitrogen). The β 2 and β 4 transcripts were identified simultaneously with sense primer 5'-AACGC-GAGCGATCCGAGCAG-3' and antisense primer 5'-ATTGTGCTT GGCA-GACGAAGCA-3'; the β 1 transcript with the sense 5'-TGACGTCAGCA-GTGACTACTG-3' and antisense: 5'-GTGGT TGAAGTGCACATTC-AGA-3' primers; and the actin transcript with the sense 5'-ACCATGG-ATGATGATATCG-3' and antisense 5'-ACATGGCTGGGGTGTGAAG-3' primers.

MSP. Bisulfite modification of genomic DNA and MSP analysis using U3/M3 and U4/M4 *RARB* P2 primers were as described (18).

ChIP Assay. ChIP analysis was performed with the ChIP kit (Upstate Biotechnology, New York, NY) according to the manufacturer's instructions with minor modifications and anti-acetyl-histone H3, anti acetyl-histone H4, and anti-phospho H3 antibodies (Upstate Biotechnology). Chromatin was

immunoprecipitated from 2×10^6 cells treated with different drug (s) or control vehicles. For duplex PCR the primers included: the *RARB* P2 sense primer 5'-GCCGAGAACGCGAGCGATCC-3', the *RARB* P2 antisense primer 5'-GGCCAATCCAGCCGGGGC-3', the *GAPDH* sense primer 5'-ACAGTCCATGCCATCACTGCC-3', and *GAPDH* antisense primer 5'-GCCTGCTTACCACCTTCTTG-3'.

Xenograft Mouse Models of Breast Cancer. Female athymic nude mice (Taconic Farms Inc., Germantown, MD) 6 weeks of age were injected with 1.5 mg/kg of body weight depo-estradiol (Florida Infusion Co, Palm Harbor, FL) 2 days before s.c. bilateral inoculation in the flank region with 5×10^6 breast carcinoma cells resuspended in serum-free medium (Invitrogen) and mixed with Matrigel (1:1; BD Biosciences, Bedford, MA) in a final volume of 0.2 ml. Mice for each cell line were randomly placed in groups (5 mice/group). Mice in the control group were treated with i.p. injections of vehicle (DMSO) six times a week. RA (2.5 mg/kg of body weight) and TSA (1 mg/kg of body weight) were administered by i.p. injections six times a week. Treatment was initiated when palpable tumors were established. Tumor volume was measured with a caliper twice a week and calculated according to the formula: A (length) \times B (width) \times C (height) \times 0.5236. Mice were treated for 3–4 weeks, then euthanized. Tumors were harvested for molecular studies.

Statistical Analysis. Data from the trypan blue counts, clonogenicity assays, apoptotic index, and tumor size are presented as means \pm SE. Differences between groups were analyzed using the Student's test for independent samples. The level of significance was set at $P < 0.05$.

Results

RA Cannot Induce *RARB2* Reactivation in Human Primary Breast Tumors Carrying a Methylated *RARB* P2. Here we provide evidence that primary breast tumors, which do not show *RARB2* induction after RA-therapy, carry a methylated *RARB* P2 promoter. By using MSP we analyzed the DNA of 13 breast tumors including 12 invasive ductal carcinoma and 1 lobular adenocarcinoma of patients enrolled in a clinical trial of RA therapy (16). These tumors were characterized previously for estrogen receptor, proliferation index (Ki67 reactivity), and *RARB2* expression before and after RA therapy (16). Four *RARB2*-positive tumors carried an unmethylated *RARB* P2. Of the 9 tumors with very low or negative baseline *RARB2* transcription, 3 carried an unmethylated P2 and 6 carried a methylated P2 (Fig. 1A). On RA treatment, the tumors carrying a methylated P2 did not show *RARB2* reactivation (Fig. 1A). Representative *RARB* P2 MSPs of an unmethylated tumor (Patient 28) and a methylated tumor (Patient 5) are reported in Fig. 1B along with the MSPs of two prototypic breast cancer cell lines, T47D and MCF7, carrying an unmethylated and a methylated *RARB* P2, respectively. The presence of both unmethylated (U) and methylated (M) products likely reflects a mixture of normal and malignant cells in the tumor sample. These data strongly indicate that a methylated *RARB* P2 is associated with lack of *RARB2* inducibility by RA.

Endogenous *RARB2* Reactivation by RA Is Possible Only When There Is Sufficient Histone Acetylation at *RARB* P2. By using ChIP and anti-acetyl-H3 and -H4 antibodies we analyzed the *RARB* P2 acetylation status of three prototypic breast carcinoma cell lines, the *RARB2*-positive Hs578t line constitutively expressing also β 4 (the other transcript regulated by *RARB* P2), and the *RARB2*-negative T47D and MCF7 lines. We found that *RARB* P2 chromatin was acetylated in the unmethylated, *RARB2*-positive Hs578t cell line and in the *RARB2*-negative T47D cell line but not in the *RARB2*-negative MCF7 cell line. Results of ChIP with the anti-acetyl-H4 antibody is reported in Fig. 1C. When we treated the *RARB2*-negative T47D and MCF7 cell lines with pharmacological doses of RA (1 μ M) we observed an increase in acetylation of *RARB2* transcription in the unmethylated T47D cells but not in the methylated MCF7 cells (Fig. 1C). Negative ChIP with anti-acetyl-H3 and -H4 antibodies in MCF7 cells was not because of rearrangements/deletions of the *RARB* P2

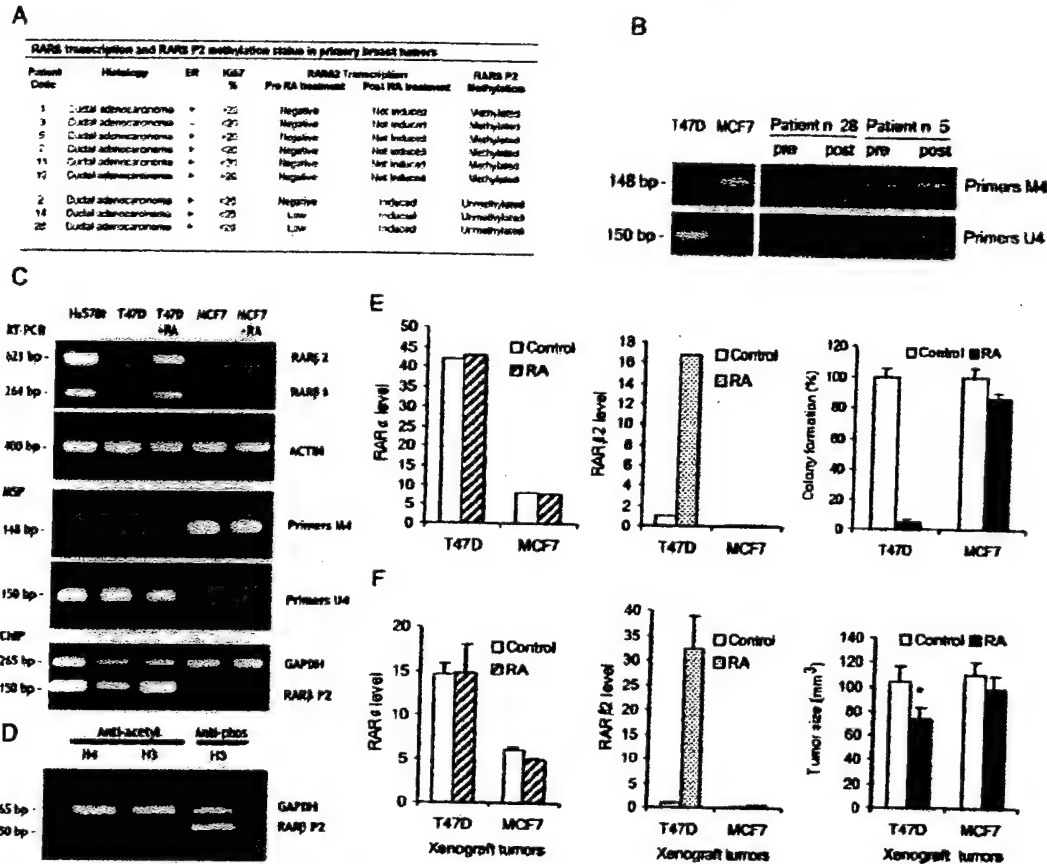


Fig. 1. *RARB2* inducibility by RA treatment and *RARB P2* methylation/acetylation status in breast cells and primary and xenograft breast tumors. **A**, RA treatment fails to reactivate *RARB2* in primary breast tumors with a methylated *RARB P2* promoter; **B**, MSP analysis of a RA-inducible tumor where *RARB2* was observed after 3 weeks of RA therapy shows the presence of an unmethylated promoter (Patient 28). In contrast, a tumor where RA therapy failed to reactivate *RARB2* carries a methylated *P2* (Patient 5); **C**, *RARB2* transcription (RT-PCR) and *RARB P2* acetylation (ChIP analysis) of *RARB2*-positive (Hs578) and -negative (T47D, MCF7) cell lines. RA treatment enhanced *RARB P2* reacylation and induced *RARB2* in unmethylated T47D cells but not in methylated MCF7 cells; **D**, control ChIP with antiphosphorylated H3 shows the integrity of MCF7 *RARB P2*; **E** and **F**, *RARB2* (but not *RARα*) reactivation by RA treatment in T47D cells and xenograft tumors but not in MCF7 cells and xenograft tumors. Endogenous *RARB2* reactivation is associated with significant loss of clonogenicity and tumor GI; bars, \pm SD.

region because ChIP with the antiphospho-H3 antibody gave a positive signal (Fig. 1D).

Thus, *RARB2* transcription seems possible only when there is an adequate level of histone acetylation of *RARB P2*. Treatment with pharmacological concentrations of RA alone can increase acetylation in a hypoacetylated *RARB P2* (T47D), but not in a deacetylated *RARB P2*.

Endogenous *RARB2* Reactivation from an Unmethylated *RARB P2* Is Associated with Significant GI both *in Vitro* and *in Vivo*. Reactivation at *RARB P2* and endogenous *RARB2* reactivation were found associated with biological effects *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Fig. 1, E and F). *RARB2* but not *RARα* expression (evaluated by real-time RT-PCR) after RA treatment in both T47D cells and xenograft tumors (Fig. 1, E and F) correlated with complete loss of clonogenicity (Fig. 1E) and significant GI in xenograft tumors (*, $P < 0.05$; Fig. 1F). Identical RA treatment did not induce *RARB2* in MCF7 cells and xenograft tumors where the observed GI can be interpreted as because of *RARB2*-independent effects.

Reacylation of H3 and H4 Histones at *RARB P2* Restores *RARB2* Transcription from a Methylated *RARB P2*. Next, we tried to reactivate *RARB2* from a methylated *RARB P2* by modulating the promoter acetylation status in two cell lines carrying a methylated *RARB P2*, MCF7 and MDA-MB-231 (18). We induced chromatin reacylation at *RARB P2* by using two reacylating agents, PB, a

short fatty acid, and TSA, a hydroxamic acid-based hybrid polar compound (21), as well as a DNA-demethylating agent, 5-Aza-CDR. Promoter reacylation and transcriptional activation induced by 5-Aza-CDR treatment (0.8 μ M for 96 h; Fig. 2B) occurred in concomitance to *RARB P2* demethylation (Fig. 2B). In contrast, promoter reacylation (Fig. 2A) and transcriptional activation induced either with PB (2.5 mM for 72 h) or TSA (33–330 nM for 24–48 h) in combination with RA (1 μ M; Fig. 2B) occurred from a *RARB P2* methylated promoter. In Fig. 2B (right and middle panels) we show the results of an experiment of *RARB2* reactivation using 330 nM TSA and 1 μ M RA. Thus, *RARB P2* reacylation is necessary and sufficient to restore the promoter susceptibility to RA action even in the presence of persisting methylation. Interestingly, *RARB2* reactivation was possible also in breast cancer cells (MDA-MB-231) with very low endogenous *RARα*.

TSA and RA Needs To Be Administered Simultaneously to Obtain *RARB2* Reactivation from a Methylated *RARB P2*. TSA is known to induce transient chromatin acetylation of ~2% of genes in a human cell (21, 22). We compared the occurrence of *RARB P2* reactivation in MCF7 cells either treated for 24 h with TSA (330 nM) followed by 24 h with 1 μ M RA or treated for 24 h with TSA (330 nM) in combination with 1 μ M RA. We observed that both histone H3 and histone H4 acetylation faded on removal of TSA (Fig. 3A) likely because of the ability of DNA-methylated sites to reattract HDAC

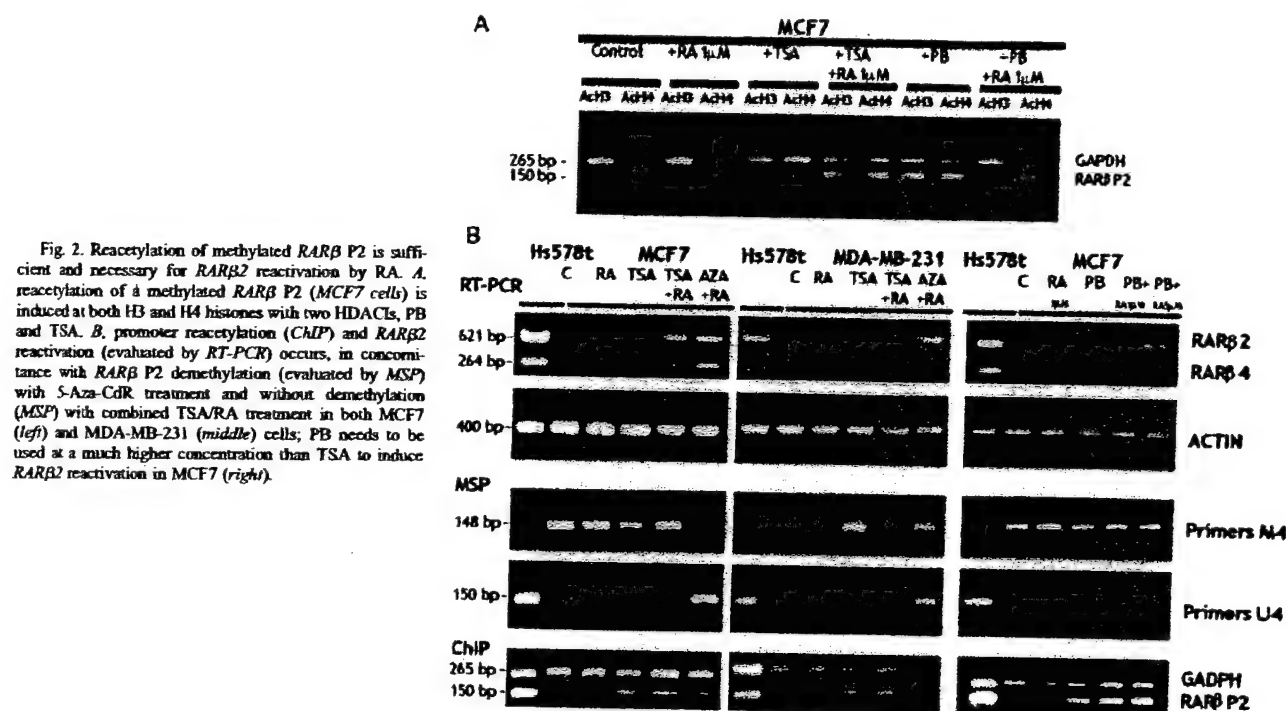


Fig. 2. Reacetylation of methylated *RARB2* is sufficient and necessary for *RARB2* reactivation by RA. **A**, reacetylation of a methylated *RARB2* (MCF7 cells) is induced at both H3 and H4 histones with two HDACs, PB and TSA. **B**, promoter reacetylation (ChIP) and *RARB2* reactivation (evaluated by RT-PCR) occurs, in concomitance with *RARB2* demethylation (evaluated by MSP) with 5-Aza-CdR treatment and without demethylation (MSP) with combined TSA/RA treatment in both MCF7 (left) and MDA-MB-231 (middle) cells; PB needs to be used at a much higher concentration than TSA to induce *RARB2* reactivation in MCF7 (right).

complexes. The best strategy for *RARB2* reactivation was to use both RA and TSA simultaneously (Fig. 3A). Apparently, *RARB2* P2 chromatin needs to be maintained "sufficiently relaxed" to enable RA-induced *RARB2* P2 transactivation from a methylated promoter.

Combined TSA and RA Specifically Target Transcription from *RARB2* P2 but not the Adjacent *RARB2* P1 Promoter. One of the major criticisms of the potential harmful effects of chromatin remodeling drugs (demethylating and reacetylating agents) concerns their nonspecific modulation/reactivation of many gene promoters in a cell, particularly the developmentally inactivated promoters. For this reason, we liked to compare the effects of TSA \pm RA and 5-Aza-CdR \pm RA on the reactivation of *RARB2* P1, the promoter adjacent to *RARB2* P2, which is a developmentally inactivated promoter (2). P1, differently from P2, does not contain a RARE. Treatment with 5-Aza-CdR (0.8 μ M) \pm RA (1 μ M) for 96 h but not TSA (330 nM) \pm RA (1 μ M) for 48 h induced transcription from *RARB2* P1 in MDA-MB-231 cells (Fig. 3B). The NCI H69 β 1 served as a positive control for β 1 transcript expression/size. Apparently TSA cannot restore the activity of P1, whereas 5-Aza-CdR can reactivate both promoters. Thus, by extrapolating from the effects on P1 and P2, it is possible that a TSA-based treatment is less likely to randomly reactivate developmentally inactivated promoters (like P1) than recently inactivated promoters (like P2).

In Vitro and in Vivo Biological Effects Associated with *RARB2* Reactivation from a Methylated *RARB2* P2. Different concentrations of TSA (33–330 nM) combined with RA (1 μ M) for 48 h result in *RARB2* reactivation and significant GI in MCF7 cells (Fig. 3C). RA treatment alone was ineffective, whereas treatments with different concentrations of TSA alone (33–330 nM) result, *per se*, in consistent GI. Nevertheless, RA (1 μ M) significantly ($P < 0.05$) potentiated the TSA growth inhibitory action (Fig. 3C). A combined RA and TSA treatment significantly affected also the proapoptotic action of RA or TSA alone (Fig. 3D). Thus, nM concentrations of TSA can modulate the response to pharmacological levels of RA in cells with a methylated *RARB2* P2 inducing profound antiproliferative and apoptotic effects.

Next, we attempted *RARB2* reactivation in MCF7 xenograft tumors. Preliminarily, we observed that TSA was not toxic in female nude mice when administered six times a week for 4 weeks at concentrations ranging from 0.5–5 mg/kg of body weight (data not shown). These data confirmed that TSA is a drug with lack of toxicity *in vivo* (23). Then, we treated groups of five 6–8 week-old female nude mice bearing MCF7 xenograft tumors with i.p. injections of the lowest concentrations of TSA (0.5 and 1 mg/kg body weight) and RA (2.5 mg/kg body weight) alone or in combination six times/week for 4 weeks. Tumor growth and general animal conditions (body weight/behavior) were measured and monitored for the entire duration of treatment. At the end of week 4, animals were sacrificed. Tumors of mice receiving 1 mg/kg of TSA in combination with RA (2.5 mg/kg of body weight) showed consistent *RARB2* reactivation evaluated by RT-PCR (Fig. 3F). TSA treatment, which alone also induced GI, significantly modulated the response of RA (Fig. 3E).

***RARB2* Reactivation Can Be Induced by Combined TSA and RA Treatment in a Variety of Epithelial Carcinoma Cells.** We analyzed the correlation between methylation and acetylation status at *RARB2* P2 in additional breast cancer cell lines as well as carcinoma cell lines of other tissues (prostate and larynx). Partial/complete P2 methylation (evaluated by MSP analysis before and after 5-Aza-CdR treatment) was always associated with a *RARB2* P2 deacetylated status (evaluated by ChIP with anti-acetyl-H3 and -H4 antibodies). The presence of an epigenetically modified *RARB2* P2 always correlated with transcriptional silencing (Fig. 4A). TSA (33–330 nM) and RA (1 μ M) treatments always resulted in reactivation of endogenous *RARB2* from an epigenetically silenced *RARB2* P2 (Fig. 4A).

Discussion

There is mounting evidence in epithelial cancer cell lines and animal models (5, 8–13) of the potent anticancer effects of the tumor suppressor *RARB2*. It has also been demonstrated that effective restoration of endogenous *RARB2* can be a powerful strategy to treat premalignant oral lesions (14). Here we report that endogenous

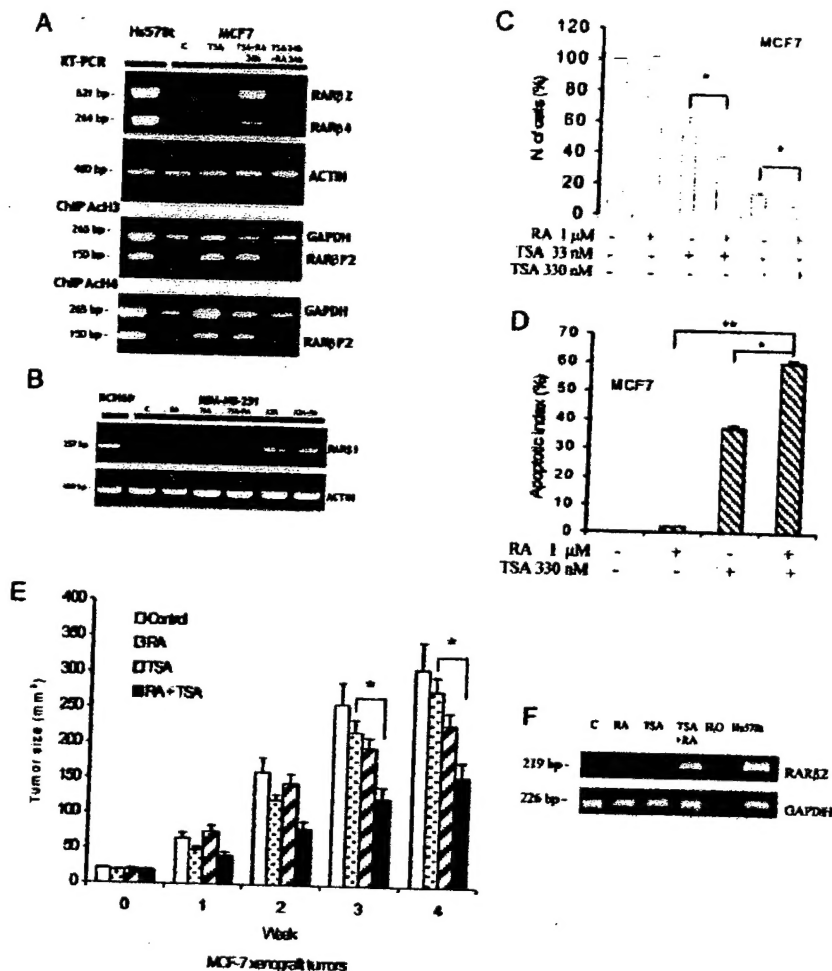


Fig. 3. Effects of combined RA and TSA treatment on *RARB2* reactivation from a methylated *RARB2* P2 *in vitro* and *in vivo*. **A**, TSA and RA must be administered simultaneously to reactivate *RARB2* from a methylated *RARB2* P2; **B**, TSA, differently from 5-Aza-CDR, does not reactivate the developmentally inactivated *RARB2* P1 promoter, 5' to *RARB2* P2; **C** and **D**, combined TSA (33–330 nM) and RA (1 μ M) treatments can reactivate *RARB2* and significantly affect both GI and apoptotic index of MCF7 cells; **E**, significant tumor GI was observed, in concomitance with endogenous *RARB2* reactivation as evaluated by RT-PCR (**F**), in MCF7 xenograft tumors after 4 weeks of combined TSA (1 mg/kg body weight) and RA (2.5 mg/kg body weight) treatment; bars, \pm SD.

RARB2 expression can be reactivated in breast cancer cells and xenograft tumors, and correlates with GI *in vivo* and *in vitro*. We show that *RARB2* reactivation can be tailored to a specific breast cancer by using either pharmacological concentrations of RA alone or in combination with chromatin remodeling drugs based on the knowledge of the epigenetic status of the *RARB2* P2 promoter, which contains the RARE.

We observed that failure of *RARB2*-negative breast tumors to respond to RA therapy does correlate with the methylation status of the *RARB2* P2 promoter (Fig. 1, **A** and **B**). Specifically, breast tumors, which failed to re-express *RARB2* after RA therapy, carried a methylated *RARB2* P2 promoter, whereas breast tumors carrying an unmethylated *RARB2* P2 re-expressed *RARB2* after 3 weeks of RA treatment (18). These data paralleled what we observed in xenograft tumors of T47D and MCF7 cells, carrying an unmethylated and methylated *RARB2* P2, respectively (Fig. 1*F*). These data clearly indicated that methylation at *RARB2* P2 is a major hurdle for successful RA therapy.

It is known that DNA methylation can induce repressive chromatin remodeling by causing massive histone deacetylation at the methylated sites (24–27). By using prototypic *RARB2*-negative breast cancer cell lines carrying either an unmethylated *RARB2* P2 (T47D) or a methylated *RARB2* P2 (MCF7 and MDA-MB-231) we observed that RA treatment alone (1 μ g/ml) induced *RARB2* reactivation, concomitant with an increase of promoter histone acetylation, only in cells carrying an unmethylated *RARB2* P2 (Fig. 1*C*). In contrast, we did not

obtain *RARB2* reactivation by the same RA treatment in cells carrying a methylated/deacetylated *RARB2* P2. These results corroborated our hypothesis (18) that differential RA resistance in cancer cells may be because of differential levels of repression at *RARB2* P2. Repression consequent to differential levels of HDAC accumulation at the promoter is perhaps due to an altered RA metabolism and/or decreased levels of *RAR α* , or other cofactors, essential for *RARB2* P2 activity. It is possible that an inactive, hypoacetylated promoter (in our case *RARB2* P2) may be capable to attract additional epigenetic changes like DNA methylation leading to additional deacetylation, ultimately resulting into gene silencing (24). Both defects of RA metabolism and low levels of *RAR α* have indeed been detected in breast carcinoma cells (28–31). In particular, MCF7 line carries at least two defects, which can lead to low intracellular concentrations of RA, namely altered expression of lecithin:retinol acyl transferase and aldehyde dehydrogenase 6, whereas MDA-MB-231 line presents a very low level of endogenous *RAR α* .

To reverse deacetylation of *RARB2* P2 and test whether we could obtain endogenous *RARB2* reactivation in MCF7 and MDA-MB-231 cells with a methylated/deacetylated promoter we used different chromatin remodeling drugs including 5-Aza-CDR, PB, and TSA. All of the three drugs were capable of inducing reactivation at P2 (Fig. 2, **A** and **B**). Reactivation was obtained in concomitance with demethylation with 5-Aza-CDR and in the presence of methylation with either TSA or PB (Fig. 2, **A** and **B**). TSA, expected to reactivate ~2%

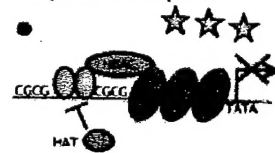
A

Epigenetic status of *RARB* P2 and *RARB* transcription in epithelial cancer cell lines

Cell line	Tissue	<i>RARB</i> P2		<i>RARB</i> transcription			
		Methylation	Acetylation	-RA	+RA	+TSA	+TSA +RA
Hs578t	Breast	Unmethylated	Acetylated	Positive	nd	nd	nd
HCC 2185	Breast	Unmethylated	Acetylated	Positive	nd	nd	nd
T47D	Breast	Unmethylated	Hypo Acetyl	Negative	Induced	nd	nd
DU 145	Prostate	Partially Meth.	Deacetylated	Negative	Not Induced	Not Induced	Induced
PC 3	Prostate	Partially Meth.	Deacetylated	Negative	Not Induced	Not Induced	Induced
HCC 712	Breast	Methylated	Deacetylated	Negative	Not Induced	Not Induced	Induced
MCF7	Breast	Methylated	Deacetylated	Negative	Not Induced	Not Induced	Induced
LNCaP	Prostate	Methylated	Deacetylated	Negative	Not Induced	Not Induced	Induced
Hep2	Larynx	Methylated	Deacetylated	Negative	Not Induced	Not Induced	Induced

Fig. 4. Reactivation of *RARB2* in different epithelial cancer cells where *RARB2* is epigenetically silenced. *A*, reactivation of *RARB* P2 and *RARB2* reactivation was induced by TSA plus RA in epithelial carcinoma cell lines from different tissues showing partial or complete *RARB* P2 methylation; *B*, a model by which progressive deacetylation at *RARB* P2 likely occurs during epithelial carcinogenesis. Both mild and severe deacetylation at *RARB* P2 in *RARB2*-negative epithelial cancer cells can be reversed pharmacologically by RA alone (middle panel) or a combination of HDACIs and RA (bottom panel), respectively.

B

Normal *RAR* β -P2Hypoacetylated *RAR* β -P2De-acetylated *RAR* β -P2

of inactive genes in a tumor cell (21, 22, 32) is, in our opinion, the most desirable of the three drugs to modulate *RARB2* reactivation and RA response from a methylated *RARB* P2. To be effective TSA needs to be administered in concomitance with RA, probably to maintain the chromatin status sufficiently transparent to enable *RAR/RXR* access (Fig. 3A). Apparently, TSA can modulate reactivation of *RARB* P2 and RA response at far lower concentration (33 nM) than PB (2.5 mM). TSA alone or in combination with RA differently from 5-Aza-CDR is ineffective at reactivating P1, the developmentally inactivated promoter adjacent to P2 in the *RARB* gene (Fig. 3B). This finding suggests that TSA may spare to reactivate developmentally inactivated promoters, and, therefore, is likely to produce fewer harmful effects than 5-Aza-CDR when used *in vivo*.

According to a recent report and our experience TSA is nontoxic and nonteratogenic in mice (23), and for this reason may have potential clinical value. We were successful in obtaining *RARB2* reactivation in xenograft tumors of MCF7 cells containing a methylated *RARB* P2 by

treating tumor-bearing mice with combined TSA (1 mg/kg body weight) and RA (2.5 mg/kg body weight) for 4 weeks. *In vivo* *RARB2* reactivation by RA+TSA (Fig. 3F) was associated with consistent tumor GI (Fig. 3E). Even if the combined TSA and RA treatment seems to be optimal in achieving *RARB2* reactivation both *in vitro* and *in vivo*, in some cell lines and xenograft tumors, occasionally, we observed *RARB2* reactivation using TSA alone. This might be because of re-expression of *RARB2* from a minimal basal promoter, independent of the RA-responsive element as already reported (33).

We also tested whether endogenous reactivation was possible in other *RARB2*-negative epithelial cancers cell lines. *RARB2* inducibility was observed in additional breast cancer cell lines (HCC 2185 and HCC 712) as well as three prostate cell lines (PC-3, DU 145, and LNCaP) and one larynx carcinoma cell line (Hep2; Fig. 4A). In all of the lines tested thus far, we observed that endogenous reactivation of *RARB2* by TSA (33–330 nM) and RA (1 μ g/ml) correlated with significant *in vitro* GI and apoptosis.

Our overall data suggest a general model where *RARβ2*, normally regulated by a dynamic HDAC/HAT balance in the presence of physiological levels of RA, (Fig. 4B, top panel) undergoes increased HDAC accumulation during epithelial cell tumorigenesis (Fig. 4B). Both mild hypoacetylation at *RARβ2* (like the one observed in T47D cells) and severe deacetylation at *RARβ2* (like the one detected in all of the other epithelial cell lines) can be reversed but require different pharmacological treatments. RA treatment alone (Fig. 4B, middle panel) can reactivate transcription from a mildly hypoacetylated *RARβ2*, whereas treatment with an HDACi, like TSA, is required to make the promoter susceptible to RA action (Fig. 4B, bottom panel).

Other novel HDACi (21, 32) need to be tested to see whether we can additionally improve the efficiency of reacylation of methylated *RARβ2* and, consequently, the susceptibility to RA response. However, we anticipate that also other HDACi will affect the acetylation of multiple promoters and proteins like TSA does. Thus, there is a need to engineer different, extremely specific, chromatin remodeling reagents to obtain specific promoter targeting, leaving unaffected the chromatin of all other genes.

At the present time our study provides useful information for potential translational applications for breast cancer and other epithelial cancers. A methylated *RARβ2* can be used as a "predictor marker" of RA responsiveness. *RARβ2* methylation can be detected at an early stage of breast carcinogenesis, and on minimum quantities of breast ductal lavage cells (34), making it possible to identify breast cancer patients with tumors that may benefit from endogenous *RARβ2* reactivation therapy.

Acknowledgments

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Abstract ID: 105479**Team: CB04****Development of epigenetic RA- resistance in epithelial cancer cells**

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Evidence has been accumulating that retinoic acid receptor (RAR)- signaling is altered in a great proportion of epithelial cancer cell lines derived from carcinomas of the breast, prostate, lung, stomach, colon, head and neck. Quite common are epigenetic changes in the RAR beta-receptor chromatin associated with lack of RAR beta transcription, loss of tumor suppressive RAR beta activity and development of RA-resistance. A few studies in primary tumors have shown lack of RAR beta transcription both in tumor cells and normal epithelial cells adjacent to the tumor, but not in normal epithelial cells distant from the tumor site. Interestingly, analysis of RAR beta DNA methylation reveals the appearance of RAR beta hypermethylation in cells microdissected from different tumor sites as well as in histologically normal cells adjacent to the tumor. The overall data suggest that epigenetic alterations affecting RAR beta are an early event in the epithelial tumorigenesis process. Inspired by Ng and Bird original hypothesis (1999) that gene inactivation may be one factor that can provoke DNA methylation and chromatin changes, leading to irreversible gene silencing, we set out to test whether this is true in the case of RAR beta. Normally, RAR beta is transcriptionally active in the presence of ligand (RA), key transcriptional effectors, including RAR alpha and COUP-TF, and a variety of coactivator proteins and histone modifying enzymes. We forcedly induced RAR beta inactivation in breast (cancer) epithelial cells, with a normally functioning RAR beta promoter, by both depleting the ligand and inhibiting the activity of key transcriptional effectors. As a consequence, we observed the appearance of non-random DNA hypermethylation in the RAR beta regulatory region and the concomitant development of RA-resistant phenotype. This mechanistic study has translational chemopreventive implications for epithelial cancers. Acknowledgements: This work was supported by US Army IDEA Awards DAMD17-99-1-9241 and DAMD17-02-1-0432 to NS.